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ABSTRACT

This monograph on the development of teachers' careers synthesizes researchers' prescriptions for early-, mid-, and late-career professional development; and describes successful programs that demonstrate sensitivity to the stages of teachers' growth. The first chapter, "Teachers' Career Development," reviews current adult- and career-stage theory, encompassing the areas of adult development, adult learning principles, and stages of teachers' careers. "Implications of Career-Stage Theory for Professional Development," the second chapter, describes how professional development programs for teachers can be redesigned, taking each stage of teacher development into account. In the third chapter, "Troubles and Triumphs in Career-Stage Professional Development," problems encountered in career-stage professional development are discussed along with experts' advice for minimizing them. A fourth chapter, "Future Directions," offers recommendations for further research in career-stage theory and professional development. A list of 119 references is included. (CJ)

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STAGES OF TEACHERS' CAREERS

IMPLICATIONS FOR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

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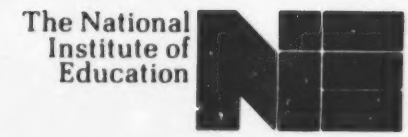

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FOREWORD

After years of careful study of the intellectual and emotional growth of children, researchers in human development are turning increased attention to adults: dynamic individuals with psychological needs as demanding as those of youngsters. As development theorists learn more about adults' unique and ever-changing needs, a trend has emerged toward applying growing understanding of adult development to adult education.

Similarly, inservice education for teachers is, to an increasing extent, taking into account new knowledge of adult development. The present monograph documents this trend. As the authors point out, "Teachers' career growth is most accurately viewed as a corollary of adult growth." Inservice programs that fail to address the intellectual and emotional needs of teachers who participate in them--programs that fail to recognize the differing needs of teachers at different stages in their careers--may actually undermine themselves and prove a squandering of precious staff-development funds.

This monograph extends the advice of experts in teachers' career-stage theory. It synthesizes researchers' prescriptions for early- , mid- , and late-career professional development, and describes successful programs that demonstrate sensitivity to the stages of teachers' growth. By way of forewarning to those who would emulate such success, the authors also illuminate common pitfalls in career-stage professional development.

The Clearinghouse acknowledges with appreciation the work of the four authors of this volume. They are Dr. Judith Christensen, director of the Master of Arts in Teaching Program at the National College of Education, Illinois; Dr. Peter Burke, executive secretary of the Wisconsin Improvement Program at the University of Wisconsin-Madison; Dr. Ralph Fessler, associate dean of graduate and continuing education at the University of Wisconsin-River Falls; and Dr. David Hagstrom, professor of administration and supervision at the National College of Education. Thanks also go to the three content reviewers, whose suggestions aided the preparation of the final manuscript.

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Teachers' Career Development

Interest in adult development--the shifts in focus and interest we undergo as we age--is burgeoning. While Erik Erikson and others have long sought to describe adult growth, authors such as Gail Sheehy (Passages, 1976) and Daniel Levinson, et al. (Seasons of a Man's Life, 1978) have brought to a wider public basic information on the subject.

Among teacher educators, popular interest in adult development sparked an examination of the professional growth of teachers. Specifically, researchers began to note distinct stages of development in teachers and found that certain forms of inservice education are more effective at one stage than another.

The importance of appropriate, continuing education for teachers is clear. Indeed, we may consider Floden and Feiman's observation an understatement: "Since teachers make a difference in education, one promising way to improve education is through changes in teachers" (1981, p. 1).

As Floden and Feiman pointed out, many educators believe that improved understanding of the stages of teachers' growth would suggest ways of guiding that growth and thereby strengthening teachers' performance in the classroom. This document reviews current adult- and career-stage theory and describes how some researchers would redesign professional development programs, taking each teacher's development into account. Problems encountered in career-stage professional development are discussed along with experts' advice for minimizing such difficulties. Finally, the monograph offers recommendations for further research in the challenging fields of career-stage theory and professional development.

Adult Development

Teachers' career growth is most accurately viewed as a corollary of adult growth. Recent reviews of the literature have attempted to sort out the major theories of adult development. Oja (1980) found three perspectives on the subject: (1) biological/maturational models developed by Freud, Gessell, Allport, and Rousseau; (2) developmental-task models including the "life-age" theories of Gould and Levinson (who examined the roles, tasks, and coping behaviors typical at certain times of life) and the "life-cycle" theories of Erikson, Havighurst, and Neugarten (who stressed adults' experiences at various ages); and (3) developmental-stage models created by Harvey, Hunt and Schroder, Kohlberg, and Loevinger, describing the growth of personality and intellect as a sequence of hierarchical stages.

Developmental-task models as drawn by Krupp and Erikson provide the most helpful perspectives on adult, and by extension, teacher development. Deeply

influenced by Levinson, Krupp's life-age theory of adult growth depicts adulthood as a time of continual change. In her handbook on Adult Development (1981), Krupp described growth as a sequence of overlapping stages:

- o Late teens and early 20s (roughly ages 17 to 24): Individuals establish independence from parents, form a tentative identity, create dreams, and search for mentors.

- o Age 30 transition (roughly ages 28 to 35): Adults seek understanding of themselves and their place in the world. Marriage and career are important concerns.

- o The 30s (roughly ages 33 to 40): Individuals are concerned with stability and career advancement. Many become less idealistic and more realistic about their lives.

- o Age 40 transition (roughly ages 40 to 47): The search for self-knowledge and concerns about time, career, and marriage dominate. Typically, males undergo greater change at this stage than females.

- o Late middle adulthood (roughly ages 45 to 50): Individuals focus on stability and experience satisfaction with their lives.

- o The 50s (roughly ages 50 to 60): As they undergo physical changes, adults review and assess their lives.

- o 60 plus (age 60 to retirement and beyond): Individuals concentrate on integrity, further physical change, and disengagement from certain activities. Retirement is a major transition.

Krupp suggested that each of these periods may be stable or transitional. In a stable period, individuals make key decisions. In a transitional period, they question and reappraise, exploring possibilities and moving toward new commitments. Levinson wrote that transitional phases are "to terminate in one's life; to accept the losses that termination entails; to review and evaluate the past; to decide which aspects of the past to keep and which to reject; and to consider one's wishes and possibilities for the future" (1978, p. 51). According to Krupp, stable and transitional periods alternate throughout life.

In contrast to Krupp's life-age concentration on stages of growth, Erikson (1959), a life-cycle theorist, focused on internal conflicts common in adult life. Erikson posited universal turning points in adult psychosocial growth. Each turning point involves a major crisis concerning the needs to trust, to assert independence, to resolve guilt, to form bonds with others, to find solitude, to produce, to work with strength and conviction, to know oneself. These crises may occur at any time of life and are not necessarily related to a particular age. Resolved, Erikson wrote, they promote satisfaction and maturity.

Differences in approach notwithstanding, the theories of Krupp and Erikson show similarities. Both reflect the importance of certain needs in adult lives--for example, the needs to take care of oneself, to share with others, to engage in meaningful occupation, and most of all to understand oneself. These needs tend to recur throughout adult life. However, as people grow older and circumstances change, old needs demand new solutions.

Adult Learning Principles

Due in part to developmental concerns, adults exhibit a style of learning characteristically different from children's. Familiarity with adult learning principles, as with adult development patterns, is important to understanding teachers' career development.

Andrews, Houston, and Bryant captured the essence of criticism leveled at many educational programs for adults when they stated

> Educational programs are not designed for adults. They are designed primarily by instructors who use what they have learned (or most likely have experienced) about teaching children, adolescents, or college students. While many of the principles of learning are the same for adults and children, differences do exist, and only by careful attention to those differences will consistently successful learning programs for adults be offered. (1981, p. 11)

Knowles (1973) alerted educators to some distinctively adult learning characteristics. For example, adult learners tend to concentrate on problems, preferring to redefine problems as they learn, and approach learning through an "experiential imperative." In addition, Knowles observed, adult learners tend to budget their learning time on projects that meet personal needs.

In a study for the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, Brundage and MacKeracher (1980) revealed how concerns related to an individual's stage of development influence what and how that individual learns. They concluded with 36 principles of learning with respect to adults. For example, adults are more concerned that what they study fits with their idealized self-concept than with standards and objectives set by others; they want assistance and support, not pressure or demands, from instructors or other learners; and they learn best when their study is relevant to their experience and concerns. In addition, factors such as stress, anxiety, and even physical aging--especially when vision and hearing change--may affect an adult's ability to learn.

From their discussion of developmental stages "in very broad, general terms" (p. 53), Brundage and MacKeracher deduced that adults are more responsive to learning when they are in transition from one stage to another. "Major transitions," they wrote, "probably respond best to learning experiences which allow the individual the time to explore personal meanings and values and to transform these into meanings and values more in keeping with current reality" (p. 53). In periods of stability, they reported, adults learn best when content relates to current endeavors and can be consolidated with present knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Regardless of the stage, "adults tend to experience a need to learn quickly and get on with living," Brundage and MacKeracher noted (p. 36).

From this and the other research cited emerges a psychosocial portrait of the adult: a continuously evolving individual possessed of powerful needs for autonomy, competence, stability, and self-knowledge; guided by a uniquely adult approach to learning; and blessed with great resourcefulness.

As a report from the Adult Learning Potential Institute emphasized:

> Thus far we have overlooked the obvious--that inservice participants are truly adult learners, whose adult learning patterns continue to change throughout the lifespan.
>
> ... [adult] learners are consistently approached as a homogeneous group in which every member is expected to participate and to respond in like fashion--this occurs even though the activity design may, in and of itself, be creative. (1980, p. 10)

Stages of Teachers' Careers

The stages of teachers' careers may be loosely categorized following preservice preparation as induction and the early years, the middle years, and the later years leading toward retirement. In each of these periods, teachers exhibit differing needs for formal and informal education, needs that correspond to the characteristics of adult learning and development.

The early years. Research suggests a link between beginning teachers' professional concerns and the tentativeness and quest for self-knowledge of the young adult. Watts (1980) described the young teacher as struggling with problems of personal and professional competence. Indeed, education students who experience actual classroom teaching for the first time may manifest "early concerns about survival" (Fuller and Bown 1975, pp. 38-9): Maintaining classroom control, mastering content, and inspiring the admiration of supervisors are of primary interest. Burden (1981) wrote that individuals spend much of the first-year "survival" stage of teaching refining their efforts to control classes and learning what and how to teach. Such preoccupations often subject the beginning teacher to high stress, and may prevent him or her from responding sensitively to pupils' needs.

As young teachers continue to adjust to classroom work, their early concerns with survival evolve into "teaching situation concerns" (Fuller and Bown 1975, pp. 38-9): Struck by both the demands and limitations of teaching, individuals struggle to transfer to the classroom what they learned in their college education courses.

Concerns during this stage contrast those the education student holds before teaching. Deeply involved in the role of pupils, young education students are often hypercritical of and sometimes hostile toward classroom teachers they observe.

Looking back on the early years of their careers, teachers involved in a study by Burden (Ryan, et al. 1979) saw themselves as unsure, inflexible, nonassertive. Beginning teachers seem to worry about the quality of their work; keeping records and planning lessons may be troublesome along with maintaining control in the classroom (Burden 1982a). At the same time, according to Flora's study of first-year teachers, young teachers place high value on fitting into the school environment and gaining the acceptance of colleagues, parents, and pupils (Ryan, et al. 1979). Unruh and Turner (1970) characterized the early years of teaching as a time of striving to win the respect of administrators and colleagues. The concentrated effort to make a favorable impression in a new job may generate considerable anxiety.

However, some research indicates that the beginning teacher's most important desire is for pupils' respect and affection. According to Spivey (1976), performing for students is the young teacher's primary source of job satisfaction. Rapport with one's class is regarded as the loftiest asset, and

emphasis in teaching is on the affective domain.

The young teacher may reveal unclear--sometimes contradictory--ideals and an ambivalent commitment to teaching, as noted by Gregorc (1973) and Spivey (1976). However, the first year in the classroom may do much to settle the teacher's mind. Gregorc wrote that in the "becoming stage" (p. 3) teachers formulate initial concepts about the purposes of education, the nature of teaching, and the roles of the teacher and school as social forces. Regarding the neophyte's commitment to the field, Ryan, et al. (1979) found that first-year teachers become either more or less comfortable with teaching, more positive or more negative about pupils. Classroom discipline becomes easier; planning seems less overwhelming; and personal and professional lives are easier to separate.

Burden (1982a) reported that after the initial fears of survival were conquered in the first year, teachers gradually gained confidence as they became more adept at planning, organization, and methods. During their second through fourth years, which Burden called an adjustment stage, teachers realize that their pupils are individuals who do not necessarily conform to the norms described in textbooks.

The middle years. A teacher's middle years, variously defined in the literature as the fourth to the twentieth year, reflect at least partial resolution of the beginning teacher's uncertainty and trepidation. Unruh and Turner (1970) described the sixth to the fifteenth years of teaching as a period of "building security": The teacher knows what he or she is doing and finds satisfaction in teaching. Burden (1982a), who called everything after the fifth year the "mature stage," and Ryan, et al. (1979) similarly noted the mid-career teacher's confidence, ease, and mature skill in the classroom.

With confidence may come a growing warmth and openness toward children (Ryan, et al. 1979; Burden 1982a; Watts 1980). Burden saw in these teachers a new awareness of the complexity of children and an eagerness to learn new skills to meet pupils' diverse needs. Ryan, et al. cited the teacher's openness to new methods and ideas, combined with a pursuit of more creative ways to teach. Desire to improve teaching performance and increase salary propel some mid-career educators toward further training.

Mid-career teachers' earnest attitude toward their work has been viewed as an affirmation of mature commitment to education. Gregorc (1973, p. 4) argued that teachers in the "maturing" stage often function beyond supervisors' expectations, contributing to as well as drawing upon their school's resources. The 10 teachers in Newman's (1978) study reported being more personal and more flexible with students but also more weary and less energetic after 20 years or more of teaching.

Maturing teachers, Gregorc wrote, test their perceptions of education and of themselves as teachers. According to Spivey (1976, p. 41), the mid-career teacher abandons the earlier preoccupation with affect for an emphasis on cognitive concerns. Promotion of academic disciplines becomes the teacher's primary source of satisfaction. Educational ideals are associated with preparing youngsters for careers, especially for professions.

The later years. Information regarding the latter stage of teachers' careers is, to an extent, contradictory. In the studies reported by Ryan, et al. (1979), teachers of 20 to 30 years' experience expressed discouragement and dissatisfaction with teaching. Many voiced a guilty desire to leave teaching. Despite their self-acknowledged flexibility with their pupils, these teachers complained of weariness, lassitude, and professional boredom.

On the other hand, Peterson reported that retired teachers recalled the years between ages 40 and 55 as a time of "optimal career performance," peak productivity, and influence (Ryan, et al. 1979). Watts (1980) viewed the mature teacher as functioning smoothly within classroom, school, and self. Unruh and Turner (1970) also characterized the mature teacher as professionally secure, open to rather than shy of change. Indeed, according to these researchers, older teachers thrive on new ideas. Gregorc (1973) also emphasized the flexibility of these mature, "fully functioning" educators, citing their efforts to realize their potential as professionals and continuously examine and evaluate their beliefs.

Spivey's (1976, p. 41) work reinforced earlier research depicting teachers in the latter stages of their careers as confident, secure, flexible. For mature teachers, Spivey wrote, pride in a job well done, as confirmed by pupils and peers, is the primary source of satisfaction. These teachers consider as their greatest asset the ability to design learning experiences that benefit children of widely varying aptitudes. In class, they are likely to stress a balance of higher order cognitive and affective outcomes; their goals for their students stem from a general notion of "the good life."

Summary

Improved understanding of the stages of teachers' growth may be the key to improving inservice education for teachers and thus indirectly the education of children.

All adults seem to pass through certain broadly defined stages. Although researchers have adopted differing perspectives on adult development, their work suggests needs common to most adults. Needs for self-sufficiency, intimacy, and self-knowledge, for example, recur throughout life, requiring fresh solutions as personal circumstances change. These compelling needs determine in part what, and how, adults learn.

The stages of teachers' careers reflect findings about adult development. In general, researchers have described teachers as progressing from early insecurity, inflexibility, and uncertainty, to mid-career stability and deepening professional commitment, to mature confidence and satisfaction.

Before describing implications of career-stage theory for staff development, the reader should be aware of the limitations of the studies discussed in this section. Typical of ethnographic studies, only small numbers of people from limited geographic areas were interviewed for these studies. Although the results are reliable and they indicate similar trends, many more studies are needed before results are generalizable to the broader population of teachers.

Implications of Career-Stage Theory for Professional Development

The idea that knowledge of career-stage theory is important to effective professional development programs for educators is well accepted in the literature (Andrews, Houston, and Bryant 1981; Bents and Howey 1981; Brundage and MacKeracher 1980; Burden 1981; Hall and Loucks 1978). Despite localized shortages of time, money, motivation, and trust, professional development efforts reveal a healthy movement toward viewing teachers as evolving individuals with varying needs and abilities.

A small body of literature has emerged that suggests staff development strategies appropriate to the stages of teachers' careers. For example, Katz (1972) surveyed preschool teachers and found a definite relationship between career stage and needs for inservice education. She recommended for beginning teachers no more than basic, technical, on-site support. For teachers in the two- to five-year stage, she advised continuing on-site assistance, but supplementing it with advice from specialists, colleagues, and consultants; attendance at conferences and workshops away from school; and visits to demonstration projects to observe how others handle similar situations; involvement in teacher centers; and by reading professional journals. For those in the fifth year and beyond, conferences, seminars, institutes, courses, degree programs, books, and journals are appropriate for meeting professional development needs.

Santmire (Bents and Howey 1981) used the four levels of Conceptual Systems Theory in identifying teachers' staff development needs. The Conceptual Systems Theory (Harvey, Hunt, and Schroder 1961) defines four levels of thinking and information processing in adults. The levels range from concrete to abstract. Teachers who have attained level four are characterized as autonomous, self-reliant, reflective, flexible, adaptive, and tolerant. As opposed to their colleagues at the concrete conceptual level, teachers at the higher level need less structured activities and can take more responsibility for their inservice activities.

The early years of teaching.

At level one, Santmire argued, teachers concentrate on the practical aspects of their job, resist change, and rest faith in the judgments of experts and authorities. Santmire wrote that professional development planners should keep in mind that these young teachers

- tend to lend credence only to voices of authority;

- o seek the relationship of new ideas to their work in the classroom;
- o reject ideas inconsistent with their experience;
- o insist on well-organized presentations (want to know exactly what to do in the classroom and when);
- o in lectures require practical examples, illustrative anecdotes;
- o profit from application of and reflection on new ideas.

Burden (1982a) also focused on the young teacher's preoccupation with practicalities. He urged supervisors to help teachers in the "survival" stage with the technical skills of teaching: lesson plans, record-keeping, classroom discipline, and specific teaching strategies. Burden advised, "A directive, supervisory approach may be most helpful at this . . . stage" (p. 12). Later, in the "adjustment" stage during the second through fourth years, supervisor and teacher may take joint responsibility for meeting teachers' needs (pp. 12-13).

Ryan, et al. (1979) registered support for inservice programs for first-year teachers that dispense clear criteria for acceptable teaching performance. Programs should address young teachers' practical concerns about working with supervisors and other administrators, the researchers wrote. They also noted a need that support be nonjudgmental.

Krupp's advice to the inservice educator of beginning teachers reflects Santmire, Burden, and Ryan's assessments of this stage in a teacher's career, but also stresses sensitivity to changes in a young adult's personal life:

- o Define clearly what is expected of the teacher;
- o Provide opportunities for independence within structure;
- o Discuss professional aspirations;
- o Help teachers to select mentors;
- o Foster exploration of the personal ramifications of a teaching career;
- o Be sensitive to ups and downs in individuals' personal relationships;
- o Keep in mind psychological differences between men and women at this stage (e.g., men tend to resist self-exploration; women tend to value self-exploration highly).

Krupp noted that young teachers adapt easily to new curricula and techniques but that supervisors and inservice trainers should not expect them to express their needs to the extent that more experienced teachers can.
Krupp is one of the few researchers to date who accounts for differences between males and females. Krupp advises that young female teachers may feel unsure toward, or actually fear, their administrators. Problems such as this need more exploration.

The middle years.

For teachers in the middle years of their careers, some researchers suggest professional development that encourages the individual's increased capacity for analysis and independent thought. For example, Santmire (1979) made the following points to staff development instructors:

- o Encourage teachers' questioning and exploration; ask more questions, thereby helping individuals clarify their thinking;
- o Increase opportunities for choice regarding what and how to learn;
- o Provide opportunities to practice new principles;
- o Lecture only when specific information is requested.

In Santmire's schemata, the mid-career years would correspond with conceptual level two and progress into three and four. At level two, adult learners are characterized by their quest to understand the reasons behind the methods and to formulate personal points of view on teaching. After five or more years of classroom teaching, they know that more than one way exists to accomplish the same end with a variety of students. They question authority but seldom offer alternative ideas. They also tend to reject mandatory staff development programs. As these teachers grow into conceptual levels three and four, they develop greater flexibility and sensitivity. They display an awareness of individual differences and a willingness to relinquish their standards for the common good. For these teachers, professional development should be individualized, with shared decision-making and support for all ideas.

Burden (1982) described teachers of five or more years' experience as "mature"--secure, committed to career, and capable of accurate self-assessment. Beyond assistance with specific problems, Burden argued, these teachers need only nondirective supervision. Change is not a threat, Unruh and Turner (1970) observed, but teachers in the middle years no longer accept things as they are; they look for verification.

With their insecure years behind them, Spivey (1976) noted, mid-career teachers set their sights on career advancement. They aspire to positions in school administration, college teaching, or other areas where they can put their executive and managerial skills to work.

Other researchers suggest a role for professional development in helping mid-career faculty cope with mid-life problems. Krupp (1981) urged inservice instructors to

- o encourage discussion of teachers' career/family conflicts;
- o show flexibility regarding career/family conflicts;
- o emphasize topics such as stress and interpersonal conflict (men show increased interest in self-awareness at this stage).

Similarly, Cytrenbaum's (1980) suggestions included support for university faculty involved in common mid-life crises with symptoms such as alcoholism, psychosomatic disorders, and depression. Professional development programs should support those seeking counseling and those making career shifts. Cytrenbaum also acknowledged the conflict between career and family

and suggested support for the dual roles of faculty. He recommended day care for children, liberal sabbatical policies, and job sharing, for example.

The later years.

Research on professional development for teachers in the mature, latter stages of their careers is scant, perhaps because the need for professional development for these individuals is perceived as slight. According to Watts (1980), the Teacher Center experience showed that traditional, formal inservice programs lose value as teachers gain mastery and maturity. Workshops and how-to courses may benefit early- and mid-career teachers, he wrote, but seldom mature teachers.

Santmire (Bents and Howey 1981) and Krupp (1981) emphasized the importance of encouraging fully mature, self-aware educators to organize and lead their own inservice programs. Indeed, Devaney (1977) and others have urged that teachers at all stages be involved in program planning:

> Long-lasting improvements in education will come through inservice programs that . . . build on teachers' motivation to take more, not less responsibility for curriculum and instruction decisions in the school and classroom and welcome teachers to participate in the design of professional development programs. (1977, p. 152)

Glickman's (1981) mature "professional"--described as high in both commitment to teaching and level of abstract thinking--requires only "nondirective" supervision. The supervisor or inservice educator listens, clarifies, and encourages while providing an atmosphere conducive to discovery but leaving discovery to the teachers themselves (p. 31). This manner of supervisory behavior contrasts with direct supervision during the early years and collaborative supervision during the middle years (Burden, 1982a).

Krupp (1981) offered more specific suggestions regarding inservice education for teachers age 50 and older:

- Program leaders may encourage teachers to teach part time, tutor, or find other ways to share their special skills.
- Inservice instruction should help teachers assess their strengths and their flaws realistically.
- Sessions offering information on stress, adult development, retirement, and concerns related to family and friends may interest older teachers.

Ryan, et al. (1979) also stressed the value of information on adult development for older teachers--particularly for those troubled by guilt over their loss of idealism or other problems possibly related to career stage.

Summary

Staff development literature supports the notion that the timing and content of professional development programs should be planned with sensitivity to the evolution of teachers' needs and concerns. In light of this conviction, researchers have begun identifying effective inservice

strategies for each stage of a teacher's maturation. Although the investigation is in its infancy (a fact the reader should not forget), some noteworthy suggestions have been made.

For beginning teachers, researchers generally prescribe a relatively structured inservice program emphasizing clear explanation of what is expected of teachers. Mid-career educators may be best served by programs that encourage inquiry and exploration while addressing common mid-life problems such as alcoholism and depression. Finally, for teachers in late career stages, some experts recommend nondirective inservice programs, developed and organized by participating teachers.

The next chapter examines some difficulties inherent in professional development based on career-stage theory and suggests ways of avoiding or overcoming such problems.

Troubles and Triumphs in Career-Stage Professional Development

Although it may be effective, professional development based on career-stage theory is not without difficulties.

The notion that needs are different during various career stages was consistent in the literature reviewed for this monograph. However, one of the more nettlesome problems identified by researchers is the limited knowledge about assessing teachers' needs at any given stage of development. The literature yields little information on this important subject, although it indicates a trend toward involving teachers directly in the identification of needs (e.g., Devaney 1977).

Beyond the problem of assessment, Glassberg and Oja (1981) questioned planners' ability to create effective developmental experiences for adults. According to these authors, teachers tend to stabilize at a particular level of development and remain closed to ideas that conflict with their interests.

Other problems affecting career-stage professional development commonly plague all types of inservice programs. Citing a nationwide survey of elementary teachers in which more than 80 percent reported dissatisfaction with recent inservice training, Berman and Friederwitzer (1981) conveyed the suggestion that programs need to offer more background in subject matter and greater opportunity to construct materials for classroom use. However, as indicated, beginning and mid-career teachers would need this kind of assistance more than older, more experienced teachers, unless the older teachers also were learning something new.

Whenever something new is introduced, teachers in all stages tend to undergo a similar process of adjustment. For example, Fuller's (1969) initial findings showed a person's concerns progressing from self to task to impact. Expanding Fuller's work, Hall and Loucks (1978) used the Stages of Concern Questionnaire (SoCQ) developed by Hall and others to measure where concerns appeared when innovation was being instituted. The research identified seven levels of concern about innovations. From lowest to highest, the levels are:

0. awareness--individual exhibits little concern regarding the innovation.

1. informational--individual shows interest in knowing general characteristics, effects, and usage of the innovation but is not worried about the impact on him- or herself.

2. personal--individual begins to worry about role in and demands of innovation and rewards for implementation.

3. management--individual concentrates on learning to use the innovation. Efficiency, organization, management, and schedules are concerns.

4. consequence--individual considers impact of the innovation on pupils.

5. collaboration--individual recognizes the need to cooperate with others in using the innovation.

6. refocusing--individual explores ways to change and alter the innovation to improve it even more. Data from the stages of concern questionnaire provide a sense of teachers' needs that can be used to design and deliver individualized assistance.

The researchers working with the Stages of Concern Questionnaire found that the stages had similar applicability for teachers or college professors involved in implementing innovations. The results of this research correspond to Fuller's self-task-impact developmental scheme.

Fervor's (1981, pp. 24-5) observations regarding the challenges facing coordinators of college-based professional development programs raised the following questions:

- o How will the program be funded?
- o Is there a solid knowledge base for the subject to be taught?
- o How can schools and institutions of higher education work together?
- o How can the program improve educators' professionalism?
- o How can collaborative governance of the program be arranged?
- o What sort of recognition should participating college faculty receive?
- o How will participating college faculty develop the necessary knowledge, skills, and attitudes?
- o How will academic quality be maintained?
- o Who is capable of designing the most effective program?
- o How can the program be made comprehensive?
- o Who shall coordinate the program?

Fervor emphasized the importance of inservice coordinators acting as professional advocates of high quality, off-campus, inservice education for their institution's faculty.

Johnson (1980) cited the failure of inservice programs to respond to contemporary issues such as educational opportunity; desegregation; handicapped, bilingual, and multicultural education; women's issues; economic conditions; social conservatism; and distrust of government. She also charged that inservice programs do not adequately study forces within education, including the decline in school enrollment and the proliferation of instructional technologies. As specific areas needing reform, Johnson noted

the following shortcomings.

1. Inservice education has not placed enough emphasis on improving school programs or teachers' performance.

2. Inservice education has not addressed teachers' day-to-day needs.

3. Inservice education has been required of teachers and imposed and delivered by others.

4. Inservice programs have violated many principles of good teaching. Individualization is needed to meet the changing needs of teachers throughout the stages of their careers.

5. Inservice education has been fragmented, unsystematic, and devoid of conceptual structure. (pp. 29-30)

Similarly, Solomon (1980) pointed out common but ineffective inservice practices, including

- o holding system-wide programs at the beginning of the school year to inspire teachers;
- o leaving the planning to administrators;
- o failing to take into account teachers' individuality;
- o emphasizing interests to the exclusion of needs;
- o leaving instruction to those who have not taught in the schools for years, if ever;
- o promoting disunity instead of coordination;
- o failing to secure adequate funding for the program and release time for teachers who participate in the program;
- o failing to reward teachers for participation;
- o failing to provide follow-up classroom assistance.

At present, many problems beset inservice programs. However, many researchers have identified practices that may prevent or reduce problems in career-stage professional development. The importance of creating an open, supportive atmosphere in inservice programs receives wide mention. For example, Wood, et al. (1981, pp. 61-3) emphasized open communication, trust, and peer support, while Applegate (1982) stressed the need for sensitive, supportive program leaders. Burden (1982) stated that inservice programs should help teachers to understand and reduce job-related tension and encourage teachers to reflect on their career development.

Hutson (1979) encouraged supervisors, administrators, and inservice planners to think of teachers in terms of a developmental model, not a deficit model. In a developmental model, Hutson wrote:

> Teachers are seen as being skilled professionals who bring unique abilities and positive attitudes to inservice. Teachers are not seen as needing inservice training because they lack the necessary skills to do an effective job. The developmental assumption is that teachers need not be weak in order to become stronger. Unfortunately, the developmental model is not widely enough understood even though its truth is simple: people try to perform up (or down) to expectations. (1979, p. 1)

Fessler and Burke (1982b) described a model of teacher-supervisor interaction for ascertaining needs of the teacher for professional growth. Having noted in another paper (1982a) the interplay among the teacher's personal needs, role expectations, and performance, Fessler and Burke emphasize open communication and mutual decision making between teachers and supervivors. These channels, they contend, serve as a basis for planning professional development programs that reflect both personal and organizational concerns. In addition, the programs and support systems they advocate build upon typical skill-building inservice activities.

In many successful professional development programs, research indicates, the individual--his or her needs, knowledge, and comfort--is preeminent. Burrello and Orbaugh (1982) found that programs planned in collaboration with classroom teachers in any stage of development to respond specifically to teachers' stated needs are most effective. Bonner (1982) suggested applying the principles of "quality control circles" used widely in Japanese industry. This model calls for a group approach to problem solving and for regular meetings between management (program leaders) and workers (participating teachers) to discuss ways of improving the system and its product (inservice education). This technique would seem appropriate especially for mature teachers. Similarly, Wood, et al. (1981, pp. 61-3) wrote that by giving teachers control over the inservice learning situation, planners increase teachers' motivation to learn new behavior.

The link between teacher involvement and inservice success was perhaps most firmly drawn by Edelfelt and Johnson (1975). Their framework for school-based programs, based upon the work of Lawrence (1974), recommends:

- programs in which teachers participate as helpers to each other and as planners of activities;
- programs that emphasize self-instruction;
- programs that encourage teachers to share and assist each other;
- training activities initiated and directed by teachers. (pp. 18-19)

At the same time, according to Applegate (1982), teachers who participate in such self-directed professional development must accept responsibility for the outcome of the program. Again, the mature teacher probably would gain more from self-directed programs than would the novice.

Other researchers assign greater importance to planners and leaders in ensuring the success of inservice programs. Stressing sound planning, Swenson

(1981, p. 4) urged attention to timing inservice programs to coincide with teachers' needs and interests, a balanced consideration of process and content, and a provision for feedback and evaluation. Drawing on the work of MacGregor (1966), Maslow (1960), Hertzberg (1959), and others, Sergiovanni (1975a, 1975b, 1979, 1982) argued for "job enrichment-motivation" on the basis that teachers must be stimulated to pursue excellence. To provide this stimulus, Sergiovanni advised, inservice leaders should address teachers' "higher" needs for esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization. In addition, according to this author, inservice programs should highlight the rewards of teaching, thereby encouraging teachers to increase effort. Many inservice programs fixate on lower order needs (e.g., security). This is appropriate for teachers whose lower level needs have not been met. Sergiovanni advocates that programs should address higher order needs such as esteem and self-actualization.

Also emphasizing the importance of guidance and instruction, several researchers have suggested the benefits of using experienced classroom teachers to assist beginning teachers. Evans (1982) and Massey (1982) urged classroom observation by experienced teachers to help diagnose less experienced teachers' needs. Evans considered the resulting "collegial" relationship between clinical observer and teacher to be crucial to the success of professional development programs. Might this success be due in part to the rewards that both groups receive from the relationship--for the beginner, security; for the master, self-actualization?

Finally, some authors have noted sound administrative policies that may sustain effective inservice programs. According to Burrello and Orbaugh (1982), good administrators enforce the integration of inservice education into the larger educational system of which it is part. Moreover, good administrators make sure that all teachers in the system have access to professional development programs and ensure the continuous evaluation of those programs. According to Wood, et al. (1981, pp. 61-3), administrators and planners must also see that inservice programs are based upon careful research, sound theory, and the best educational practice.

Summary

Redesigning professional development to take into account current knowledge of the stages of teachers' careers may present problems. Some of the problems--for example, the tendency of teachers to stabilize at a particular level of development, and the paucity of knowledge regarding teachers' needs assessment--are peculiar to career-stage professional development. Other problems affecting career-stage professional development also afflict other types of professional development programs. Problems concerning funding, school-university cooperation, weak bases of knowledge, and inadequate planning, instruction, or timing fall into this category.

However, despite the many difficulties, research has uncovered certain characteristics associated with successful professional development. Broadly stated, these characteristics include (1) a warm, supportive atmosphere that promotes sharing; (2) an emphasis upon the individual teacher; and (3) involvement of participating teachers in planning and direction.

Improved understanding of the stages of teachers' growth may lead to greater knowledge of the hallmarks of inservice success.

Future Directions

Much of the literature cited in this document represents a first attempt to understand the career growth of teachers and its implications for inservice education. Some ethnographic studies have dealt with limited samples, or have addressed specific concerns within career-stage theory, and thus are but narrowly applicable. Least useful of all, some reports posit career stages solely on the basis of observation and impression: They include no firm research base. Thus, in both career-stage theory and in career-stage professional development, large gaps in information impede progress.

Researchers have offered various career-stage theories, which, viewed as a group, loosely parallel current thought regarding adult development. From initial insecurity and rigidity, the literature indicates, teachers typically progress to mid-career stability and deepening professional commitment, and finally to mature confidence, competence, and satisfaction in their careers. Within this general pattern, some experts have noted periods of discouragement, disillusionment, even depression, especially in the middle and final professional years.

In connection with increasing knowledge of adult growth in general and teachers' growth in particular, many experts have declared that professional development programs should respond to teachers' evolving needs. Work has begun toward identifying the most effective inservice strategies for various stages of an educator's maturation. Data gathered so far suggest structured inservice for beginning teachers; wider-ranging, less structured inquiry for mid-career individuals; and self-initiated, nondirective programs for teachers in the late stages of their careers.

However, these findings represent only a rudimentary data base in career-stage theory and professional development. Much scientific, quantitative research remains to be done to improve our understanding of teachers' career stages. And inservice education cries out for more solid data regarding the kinds of programs most appropriate for teachers at various stages of development. Needs assessment, and the identification of ways to meet those needs, require vast improvement. Research must identify the effects of reassignment and relocation on teachers' growth. We also need clearer data on why good teachers choose to leave the profession and on whether appropriate professional development programs could prevent this loss. Finally, research should examine the development of subgroups of educators. For example, are there differences in development (and hence differing professional development needs) between elementary, middle-school, and secondary teachers; between male and female teachers; or among teachers of varying ethnic or cultural backgrounds?

For the past 70 years, education has known the importance of individualizing instruction for children. Now, as research into school change and student achievement focuses on the role of the teacher, educators are

discovering the value of individualized instruction for adults. Thus, knowledge of teachers' career stages and their implications for professional development will almost certainly grow in importance.

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